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"Salvation of India lies in Cottages".

—*MAHATMA GANDHI*

THE PROBLEM OF RACE DETERIORATION

NO problem in the country is so baffling and demanding earnest attention of the leaders as the one of Race Deterioration. It is rather a misfortune that those who hold the reigns of the country at the moment seem to be quite oblivious of the existence of such a problem.

In their hurry and sole obsession of raising the economic standard of living of the people, they seem to undermine moral standards and values on which society is based. The adoption of 'Secularism' as a state policy and the banning of religious instructions in Government controlled educational institutions have created irreligious—rather immoral—atmosphere in the country and have produced a generation of young men who seem to throw moral scruples to winds and scoff at the idea of moral values.

Loss of Leadership

The question, 'What after Nehru'? is being asked both in the Press and on the platform for many long years without being answered satisfactorily. What holds true about Nehru in the case of All-India leadership, equally holds true about provincial, regional and even village leadership. Leadership as a class, which is the basis of raising the standard of human society has mostly disappeared in this country within living memory or is on the verge of disappearing without finding their successor to replace them. Non-existence of a second line of succession among the leaders of the country is an admitted fact which definitely points the deterioration that has taken place in human material and presents the grave problem of race deterioration for immediate solution.

Several years back, on a visit to Shanti Niketan in Bengal, we were taken round by the Manager to show various institutions. While taking tea and tiffin at the end of the round he gave us a long list of about hundred great men and pioneers produced by Bengal in various walks of life in the past and ended his true but pathetic presentation with a touch of pathos, Alas! Bengal today has ceased to produce all-India leaders and pioneers.

The pathetic story told by our Bengalee friend about Bengal is also the story of Maharashtra, Gujerat, Punjab and many other parts of the country where the line of leadership is practically extinct. The same may be said about regional and village leadership in the country. It is rather a tragedy that the advent of freedom, when leadership is most needed to build-up the nation in every walk of life, the age of giants and stalwarts seems to have gone, leaving only mediocrities and moral-bankrupt generation to take their places.

Looking round in one's own surroundings today, one is shocked to see poor human qualities, perverted mentality, insincerity, lack of stamina and capacity for hard work in the present day younger generation coming out of our Schools and Colleges. They seem to acquire vices of gangsterism and destructive agents of

the society rather than the virtues and high qualities of head and heart which characterise the leadership. Constructive and creative faculties which are essential to build up the nation are woefully lacking in them. How such a generation may be expected to build a great nation is beyond one's comprehension.

Scourge of Freedom

It is greatly to be regretted that the post-Independence period in our country is characterised by freedom with vengeance and loss of moral atmosphere in general. Political leadership in the country has fallen prey to the lure of power and profit and has lost the moral fervour of the crusaders of old to inspire and elevate human character which alone can check this process of race deterioration. The task awaits the emergence of new type of leadership in the country which stands for the revival of moral values and has the capacity to set personal example to inspire and elevate the moral tone of the society.

A PHILOSOPHY OF EXTENSION

By: T. S. Sohal

IT is common to hear the philosophy of Extension described by such phrases as 'extension is education, it seeks to help the people to help themselves, demonstration is the essence of extension programmes, extension aims at teaching practical skill to people and enabling them to learn by doing' and so on. It will be seen that these statements, in their attempt to decipher philosophy of extension, refer to different aspects of this subject. A complete description of philosophy must necessarily touch nature of extension, its aims and methods.

It will be of interest to review the philosophy of extension in the light of different philosophies professed or propounded by various authorities. This will provide a comparative appraisal of the subject of extension in the light of different philosophies.

Realism

The philosophy of realism lays exphasis on objective and realistic approach in every walk of life. This takes into consideration what is available and what is possible with the accessible resources. From realism, an extension worker learns the lesson of remaining a true realist in recognising the problems of the people and the locality and assessing the resources available. This saves him from either becoming evasive in finding peoples' needs or over-optimist in assuming the useable resources.

Idealism

The protagonists of this philosophy view every thing in absolute term and strive for the creation of ideal situation through ideal methods and in an ideal atmosphere. They believe in utopian conditions where means and actions of everyone are adjudged against a very high moral standard and are calculated to produce *par excellence* results. This philosophy inspires an extension worker to fix his fundamental aims very high so that he feels a wide gap between where the people are and where he wants them to take. Thus, he finds his job always challenging.

Pragmatism

This is a philosophy which is characterised by its flexibility and practicality. It allows maximum amount of lee-way in the choice of methods to solve a problem. Sometimes even means are given no consideration in achieving the objective in view. 'End justifies means'

is believed to be its guiding principle. This philosophy fits very ideally in allowing a liberal and wide range of choices to an extension worker in carrying out his activities. This leaves the worker completely free to use his imagination and creative ingeneuity in using extension methods. Extension can never be expected to flourish and prosper under dogmatic and rigid rules. A pragmatic approach which allows maximum of opportunity to individual worker to vary the methods according to the nature of problem, the peculiarity of setting and personal inclinations of the worker has much to contribute to the success of extension programmes.

Experimentalism

Experimentalism teaches us the necessity of developing a scientific outlook. It demands a sense of curiousity whereby one becomes inquisitive about everything. Before accepting any point of view, one would like to test it and know for himself its validity. An extension worker believing in this philosophy would be ever willing to try and experiment with new ideas and techniques and accept them for further propagation after being himself first convinced of their merits.

Humanism

This philosophy keeps the *homo-sapien* above everything else. Every action or home is supposed to have in it the well-being of the human race without any ill-will, malice or discrimination. In extension, concerned as we are with the development of people, this philosophy has a very close applicability to us. Extension is not concerned with merely creating some additional physical facilities or amenities, but its chief aim is the refinement of the people that are being approached. There may be higher income, better houses and superior environmental sanitation, but if the people are not educated to use them intelligently, these improvements may turn out to be either short-lived or merely spurious. So a practitioner of humanism will make a good extension worker.

Essentialism

This philosophy recognises the universality of some phenomena and prescribes some fundamental or essential explanations for them. It believes in laying down some minimum essential requisite which must be fulfilled before proceeding further. It recognises in the ordering of the things in a particular sequence. As for instance, a child must first learn to crawl before it can be expected to walk. This philosophy tells extension worker a fundamental need of fulfilling first some basic and elementary needs of the people rather than making a beginning at some higher level. It underscores the necessity of working with the people from a stage where they are and taking them up step by step.

Permissive

This is a philosophy which approaches *laissez-faire* and allows complete freedom in every respect. This rests on the belief that temporary imbalances created in nature are sure to be adjusted in due course of time. Although this philosophy is not respected very highly in the context of the present day thinking where certain amount of restraint is considered essential, yet a believer of this may use it in selecting his tools and instruments.

Reconstructionism

This philosophy has a belief that the society keeps on reconstructing itself. The old values keep on changing. The speed of construction may differ among different societies and at different stages of their growth, but no society can be termed as static in absolute terms. As extension is constantly and consiously endeavouring to usher in new era through a change, each one of us is engaged in the task, to supporting this philosophy.

Theism

This philosophy lays premium on a religious and disciplined life. It teaches that human life without any principles is no better than

animal life. A liberal believer of this philosophy will have profound regard for his religion but at the same time sufficient respect for others' point of view. As the extension in the world in general and in India in particular operates among people professing a variety of beliefs and religions, an extension worker has got to be a liberal thesist.

Eclecticism

This is a philosophy that is propounded by free-thinkers who do not want to be categorised under any of the above philosophies. They, however, believe in patronising the best among any of them. They want to dismiss the rigid aspects of various philosophies and want to pool together the desirable aspects from them. They believe in choosing. As a matter of fact, the extension worker is a true believer of eclecticism and is ever willing to take advantage of any of the philosophies and set aside those that have no practical utility for his job.

CO-OPERATION IN THE THIRD PLAN*

By: Maheshchand

I HAVE selected for this morning's talk the topic "Co-operation in the Third Plan". There have been talks and considerations going on in the country and wherever training is being imparted intensively ever since 1958. Young trainees, who are going to be Co-operative officers, particularly A.D.O. (Co-operation) and Co-operative Supervisors, shall be called upon to implement the policies laid down in the Third Plan. It, therefore seemed topical to discuss this theme with you on the eve of the Draft Outline of the Third Plan.

The following table gives a rough picture of what we find in the country:—

Activity	Contribution to National Income (Rs. crores)	Population (crores) Dependent	Population (crores) Engaged	Per Capita national income in regard to—population Dependent	Per Capita national income in regard to—population Engaged
Agriculture	5330	24.9	10.2	201	523
Industry	2090	3.8	1.5	550	1393
Commerce & Transport	2020	2.7	0.9	748	2244
Other Service	1920	4.3	1.6	447	1200

The contribution of agriculture to national income is still about half, industry and commerce, each account for about one-fifth of our national income, and services yield a sixth portion. So, nationally speaking, agriculture is important.

Again if you view the per capita income, you find that agriculturists get about two-fifths of what those engaged in industries and services get, while those engaged in commerce and transport are having the highest per capita income—almost three and a half times the agriculturists. If in a country all must sink and swim together, the share of agricul-

*Based on talk given at the Block Level Co-operative Officers' Training Centre, U.P., Fyzabad.

turists must go up and that of commerce come down.

This indicates incidentally the desirability of introducing more people in the field of commerce and transport. There is yet a third way of looking at these sectors. What are their respective and relative potentialities?

In a country where agriculture predominates we require more of non-agricultural goods and therefore non-agricultural goods should be produced in greater proportion. For the production of non-agricultural goods we even now need co-operation of the agriculturist for raw materials and food. Therefore yields in agriculture have also to be sent up.

Simultaneously we have to keep in mind the distribution of surplus manpower. The greater proportion of such manpower lies in the rural sector and if we do not want to move them before finding jobs for them, we must develop economic activities for them in the rural sector.

The problem of finding jobs depends on (i) well analysed schemes, (ii) funds and (iii) marketing arrangements.

This means that in the coming years co-operators should strive for co-operative credit, co-operative transport, co-operative marketing and co-operative industrial production on the cottage and small scale basis. So far as the problem of increasing the yield is concerned, you know the emphasis within the co-operative sector has come to be in reality on supply of seed and manure. What is neglected is the problem of irrigation which implies for me a two-fold action: (i) minor irrigation societies and (ii) canal irrigation water distributing societies.

If we go by the allocation made in the third five-year plan we can draw some hints:—

Description		Third Plan Rs. crores	%	Second Plan Rs. crores	%
Agriculture & minor irrigation	..	625	8.6	320	6.9
Community development & Co-operation	..	400	5.5	210	4.6
Major & medium irrigation	..	650	9.0	450	9.8
Village & small industries	..	250	3.4	180	3.9
Non-railway transport		250	3.4		
Railways	..	1220	16.8		
Social services		1250	17.2	800	18.7
Total (Third Plan)	..	7250	100.0	4600	100.0

The increase in the percentage allocation of the first four items listed here is 1.3 (from 25.2 to 26.5). It cannot be easily accepted that much more will come due to investment that will be made by the private sector. Investment by the private sector counts more in the case of the other industries and services. If there had been scope for this we would not find the following break up in the case of primary village societies:—

Targets for the Third Five-Year Plan

			Total (Rs. crores)
1.	No. of primary village societies	2.5 lakhs	
2.	No. of members	400 lakhs	
3.	Average membership per society	160	
4.	Average share capital per member	Rs. 30	12
5.	Statutory and other reserve per member	Rs. 10	4
6.	Deposit to be held by societies		30
	Total funds of the societies		46
7.	Loans to be issued by the societies:		
	Short term		400
	Medium term		160
	Long term		115

Even if we ignore the long term (outstanding) loans target, it can be pointed out that with just Rs. 46 crores of own capital the target is Rs. 560 crores, i.e., about 12 times. Wherefrom will the funds come? Even in the scheduled banks the ratio of own capital plus time deposits bear a ratio of less than ½ to total investments. Primary Credit Societies in agriculture have a working capital of Rs. 134 crores. Add to it Rs. 147 crores of central co-operative banks; we get about Rs. 281 crores. Outstanding loans were of the order of Rs. 218 crores and 12% were overdues. So? So, it must be conducted that funds will flow from the government or the Reserve Bank as share capital, subsidy, long period loans and advances. These do not seem to have been taken account of in the allocations made in the Plan.

The allocation made for the village and small industries is inadequate if we are to provide for sizeable employment. The increase in allocation is of Rs. 70 crores over the Second Five Year Plan allocation of Rs. 180 crores. Could it be that this has been done because of the slow progress during the current plan? If so, it would be indicative of no urge on the part of the Planners to push up these industries. It is true that for successful implementation in this sector consumers' preferences have to be tackled, particularly through living examples and demonstration.

Yet another point may be made. They expect that roughly 40 crore tons of goods will have to be moved during the next plan and the allocation seems to be as follows:—

Means of transport

	Water	Bullock	Railways	Roads
Goods (million tons)	16	80	220-235	80

but they forget that besides these 80 million tons of goods, roads will have to carry feeder goods to the railways and water-heads. Thus roads shall be carrying about 300 million tons of goods. The allocation made viz., Rs. 250 crores are clearly insufficient. Even according to the Engineers' Plan, which may be taken to have substituted the Nagpur Plan, the allocation should have been Rs. 1300 crores.

There is a lesson behind this seeming digression. When *you go* to the field and face your work, inspite of *lacunae* pointed out above, you shall get a policy and orders which shall be based on not on realities but on such accepted features as are implied in the following extracts:—

a. Responsibility and initiative for social and economic development at the village level should be placed fully on the village co-operative and the village panchayat.

b. The co-operative and the panchayat are the primary agencies for carrying out the community development programme.

c. The village agricultural plan is the foundation of the programme for co-operative development and should receive the highest priority.

d. Every cultivator participating in the production plan of the village should be able to secure the necessary credit for obtaining supplies of fertiliser, improved seed etc. and for meeting the current expenses of cultivation to the extent necessary.

Therefore you shall have to think of ways and means of building up savings in the co-operatives under your charge. It may be that you shall launch 'Bal Bachat Yojna' campaign as has been going on for some time in the Bundelkhand area: it may be to make a compulsory retention of the sale proceeds of their members as deposits; or you would persuade the central banks and credit societies to allocate more of their profits to 'reserve'.

Also you would do well to impress upon the societies to have their own means of transport, say in the form of bullock carts and thelas.

In the Draft Plan this time the Planners are not dogmative and their observations have been properly qualified for all possible contingencies. Every thing is very tentative and the estimates of resources are not based on quite sound assumptions. The needs of the country do characterise the Plan this time, though not to the extent necessary. It is expected that 4200 crores of rupees will be invested by the private sector, including the following figures for items already quoted:—

(Amounts are in crores of rupees)

	Agriculture & irrigation	Village & small scale industries	Transport
1. III Plan	850	325	200
2. II Plan original	275	100	85
3. II Plan Revised (including transfers from public sector)	675	225	135

It is not revealed what portion of the revised figures should be taken to have been transferred from the public sector. But we do read in the draft plan that—

"Of....Rs. 4,200 crores Rs. 200 crores will be by transfer from the public sector. (Also) Considerable assistance by the Reserve Bank to agriculture, small scale industries and some select financial corporations dealing with the private sector is also envisaged, (not to speak of) external assistance.. of Rs. 300 crores."

This makes the whole allocation quoted earlier vague. But more uncertainty arises out of the scheme of financing revealed for the public sector which I put as follows:—

		Rs. crores
Taxation:		
Current	350	
Additional	1650	2000
State undertakings:		
Railways	150	
Public enterprises	440	590
Loans:		
Provident Fund, Betterment levies etc	510	
Small savings	550	
Public loans	850	1910
External assistance	2200	2200
Deficit Finance	550	550

There were Rs. 1000 crores for additional taxation in the Second Five-Year Plan: the figures have increased considerably. But we do not see anything unusual about it provided it is remembered that

a. there should be considerable scope for more revenue if administration could be tightened to reduce evasion.

b. indirect taxes have to be taken recourse to make the low income groups contribute their mite towards the financing of the Plan.

c. it includes also additional earning expected due to measures to increase the surpluses of public enterprises.

So far as explanation by planners is concerned, I will mention the following extracts:—

"..the additional target of Rs. 1650 crores.. it is also the minimum required.."

"The growing investment activity in the public sector requires a growing volume of public savings, and taxation together with the surpluses of public undertakings has to be an important element in any development plan."

"For the majority of the people, the additional taxation..will still permit a rise in consumption".

The majority that the Planners perhaps have in mind are the farmers who mainly grow food crops and who are very likely to consume more if they succeed in growing more. Political factors apart he who controls the purse has his say first. So he who reaps two blades where one grew before, shall have the priority and a greater-than-before percentage for his own consumption. Unless, therefore, you see that the farmers in your areas forego a greater portion of their produce, the burden of the Third Plan will be relatively greater on the middle classes of the urban areas.

To come to co-operation more specifically, six out of 254 pages of the Draft Plan are devoted to it. They start by affirming that by the end of the Third Plan all rural families will be brought within the co-operative fold. One wishes that they had included the lower and middle class urban families as well. To me the recent countrywide strike is a symptom of the growing uneasiness in the middle class group. Since they provide the brainwork, it may be cautioned that if through greater consumers' movement and consumers' education prices are not held down and efficiency of consumption increased, there shall be more of strikes in future.

a. overstuffing in government offices, with gentlemen flocking to the canteen during office hours or organising chitchat parties round the office-tables, implying incidentally greater bitterness and chaos in the family, and

b. still less of morale and character among public servants.

Since I presume many of you also come from middle classes, I do want that you should be forewarned and if you do not want to force yourselves on to such situation, it is essential that you pay greater attention to proper co-operative development. In order to be successful you will not only have to exercise sympathetic care of the societies but also fight against the other departments (including the civil supplies department) to secure a greater share of distribution for the co-operatives not only in the collection but also in the distribution markets.

The emphasis within the co-operative aspect of the Draft Plan is on village co-operatives of the 'service' pattern. Their primary functions are "the provision of short and medium-term credit, supply of agricultural and other production requirements, and the marketing of agricultural produce." The words "other production requirements" refer to requirements of industrial production. Societies for specific purposes are not ruled out.

The society is not so much on village basis as on population basis—one society per 1000

population subject to "voluntary basis, close contact, social cohesion and mutual obligation." Some of these terms may be difficult to interpret for you and we may well find one day that some of them are violated on practical grounds. Credit has to be linked to marketing and the village society has to act as an agent to the neighbouring marketing societies.

The hotch-potch character of a co-operative is further increased, said a colleague of mine, by the words "the co-operatives should help to formulate and implement the agricultural production plan" and "undertake such educative, advisory and welfare work as the members might be willing to take up." I did not agree with this because while the first is a desirable function, the second is dependent on the willingness of the members. And, I tell you, their willingness in turn shall depend on the inspiration you are able to impart.

There is also a mention of comprehensive programmes of co-operative training and education: of supervising unions at the block level federated at the district and the State level.

So far as co-operative credit and co-operative farming are concerned, the Draft Plan is stillborn as the reports of the Committee on Co-operative Credit and of the Working Group on Co-operative Farming are still under consideration. But it is worth mentioning that the Third Five-Year Planners do accept that the "contribution of co-operative farming to rural progress will be significant *only if* (*Italics ours*) it develops as a *voluntary mass movement* (Italics ours) under genuine local leadership and as a logical growth of community development and co-operation at the village level." Also, although at one place it is asserted that "much practical experience is now available", it is further clarified that "to encourage undue dependence on their part on outside help or to regard them otherwise that as an aspect of the normal pattern of rural development" will be to inhibit their growth and that progress depends on successful local experience gained in different parts of the country under field conditions.

The need for placing existing societies on sound footing is felt not only in regard to co-operative farming societies but also co-operative marketing societies. There shall be an increase of only 400 societies over the existing 1900 societies which must be effectively linked with the village societies and accorded storage and other facilities including training of personnel.

If I do not forget, I have in the past written about the farce of co-operative sugar factories. It was therefore heartening to read the planners say that these factories are "still confronted with difficult problems of organisation, management and finance." What else is mainly left? Having learnt the lesson, processing units entailing relatively less capital investments are now to be organised. Some of the targets are as follows:—

Food		Fibres		Oils	
Rice mills	50	Cotton gins	50	Oil crushing	
Rice hullers	300	Jute baling	20		
Flour mills	5				
Decorticators	50				
Milk Processing	75				
Rural creamery	30				
Fishermen's co ops	?				

Specific proposals for co-operative training are still to be formulated though a reference is made to the preliminary proposals made by the Working Group on Co-operative Development.

A similar treatment has been meted out to

the consumers' co-operative societies. The village service societies are expected to be able to undertake distribution along with their other functions in the villages. In the urban areas precise programmes have not been so far worked out. The Working Group on Co-operative Development no doubt mentioned a target of 4000 primary stores and 100 wholesale stores in large towns and cities and in industrial centres.

Thus we see that the role of co-operation has not been made very specific and that it shall be decided by the politicians without any opportunity being given to the public to discuss the proposals. One might say that there is sufficient in the Draft Plan for a non-official co-operator to discuss. My only reaction is there can be discussion on the basis of what one finds and not on the basis what the planners propose. But this much can perhaps be asserted:

a. There is still much officialdom, or, failing which, an air of negligence towards the non-officially worked societies.

b. There is less than necessary realisation of the great need for consumers' Co-operative movement simultaneously with the marketing societies if we want to control the prices successfully.

c. There is overdue expansion of co-operative education and training of non-official members and workers as also that of establishing links between academic co-operative training centres and co-operative societies. The academic centres can also help-make independent survey and stock-taking of the progress and situation in different regions.

EMPLOYMENT AND THE THIRD PLAN

By: Prof. R. G. Sony

ONE of the most baffling problems of the modern world is the problem of providing employment to every able-bodied person. In some form or the other the problem exists in almost every country of the world. The problem is not new to India also. The fact is that we tried to shut out eyes to it in the past. The recent increase in educated unemployment has brought the problem to the fore.

Substantial expansion of employment opportunities is said to be one of the principal aims of the Third Plan. It is expected to provide additional 14 million jobs—3.5 million in agriculture and 10.5 million in non-agricultural sectors—while the entrants in the labour force during the Third Plan period will be about 15 million. The planning commission admits that the increase in the employment has not kept pace with the growth of the labour force.

At the start of the second plan, there was a backlog of unemployed estimated at 5.3 million. Government hoped to prevent the situation deteriorating still further during the second plan period and had therefore planned to create 10 million job opportunities to offset the new additions to the labour force. Because of the difficulties with which the second plan has been confronted, there is a curtailment of expenditure in the public sector from Rs. 4800 crores. to Rs. 45,00 crores. This means a reduction of the employment target from 8 million to 6.5 million. However present indications are that even this reduced target will not perhaps be achieved.

It is estimated by some economists that during the first three years of the plan only 2.5 million jobs were created and it is feared that at the end of the Second Plan, there would be a substantial addition to the backlog of unemployment which existed at the plan's beginning. This is hardly flattering outcome of the two plans

which are said to have increased the National Income of 42 percent in the 10 year period. Taking all these things into consideration, the unemployment at the end of the Third Plan will be at least 9 million.

The draft outline of the Third Plan suggests action in several directions by which additional employment of a productive character can be created without calling for use of scarce materials, specialized skills and foreign exchange.

Expansion of small Scale industries in villages and towns is one such measure. During the Third Plan 34,000 Towns and Villages as against 19,000 in the Second Plan are expected to be electrified. Attempts are to be made to set up small industries in these places.

Another important measure suggested by the Planning Commission is the decentralisation of a fair proportion of the production of large industries, so as to promote the growth of smaller enterprises. This is expected to apply to both the public and private sector industries.

There are various other suggestions also. Location of processing industries in rural areas, enabling villages to meet the requirements of urban areas, utilisation of manual labour etc. are some of them. The draft outline of the Plan has laid great stress on utilisation of the rural manpower so that more work is found for the underemployed in villages. Comprehensive works programmes have been suggested for solving the problem of under-employment in rural areas and for stepping up agricultural production, Labour co-operatives may be formed for carrying out some of the programmes. Village Panchayats are expected to play a very important role in this connection.

The problem of unemployment among the educated persons has in recent years assumed alarming dimensions and attracted widespread public attention. A study undertaken by the manpower Division of the Directorate of Employment Exchanges, Ministry of Labour and Employment of the pattern of unemployment among graduates as on May 15, 1957 showed that graduate unemployment was more widespread in West Bengal, U.P., Bombay and Delhi than in other states. The highest incidence of unemployment among women graduates was in Kerala. About 93 p.c. of the unemployed graduates seeking employment were men and about 7 p.c. women. 48.5 p.c. of the unemployed graduates were B.A.'s, 22.7 p.c. B.Sc's and 12.8 p.c. B.Com's.

According to official survery on April 1, 1958 9,31,479 persons were on the registers of Employment Exchanges awaiting jobs. The largest 1,63.706 were in West Bengal, then came Bombay with 1,37.496 and U.P. with 1,34,274. It may be mentioned here that the Government of India have approved a scheme to relieve educated unemployment under the scheme 60,000 teachers will be appointed during the next 3 years. About 15,000 teachers will be appointed in 1958-59, 20,000 in 1959-60, and 25,000 in 1960-61. It is definite that this will hardly touch the fringe of the problem. According to draft outline of the Third Plan attempts will be made to absorb educated young men in rural development activities.

Our reverd leader, C. Rajagopalachari has given us very wholesome advice in this connection. "No nation ever solved or attempted to solve the problem of unemployment among its educated classes by absorbing them all in its administrative services. The root of this mischief in our country is in the education imparted which unfits the recipient psychologically as well as otherwise for anything but such service. The remedies lie in expanding technical education and in a policy which will encourage and not curb by harassing regulations the rapid expansion of trade and industry. It is this alone that can and ought to absorb the unemployed. The superstition that all education is to end in

a white-collar appointment under Government must be done away with."

We should always bear in mind that unemployment is not a curse of God as the Indian masses given to fatalistics thinking are apt to imagine. The unbalanced nature of our economy is the primary cause of our unemployment problem. The malady is the cumulative result of a number of causes. It has to be avoided to use the words of Beveridge, "For not the want it may bring but the hatred and fear which it breeds." Our Third Plan is an attempt only in this direction. So let us pray and fight against the unemployment problem with heart within and God over-head!

AGRICULTURE IN THE THIRD FIVE-YEAR PLAN

By: M. Balasubramaniam

THE Third Five-Year Plan which will start functioning on 1st April 1961, has been formulated with the main objective to achieve self-sufficiency in foodgrains and to meet the requirements of industry and exports, to the highest levels feasible, so that the incomes and levels of living of the rural population may rise and keep pace with incomes in other sectors

An examination of the outlays under the major heads in the plan clearly reveals that just like the First Plan, the Third Plan is an agricultural plan. This sort of greater emphasis in the improvement of Agriculture in the Third Plan is justifiable because a more rapid increase in agricultural production is absolutely essential for feeding our population which is now growing at the rate of 2% per annum, for raising the level of consumption to 15 ounces of cereals and 3 ounces of pulses per head per day and for carrying out the large scale programme of economic development.

From the principal targets of agricultural production, it appears that the production of Agricultural output will increase by 30-33% and foodgrains by 33-40%. Major schemes in the plan, to achieve the targets in full, include irrigation, supply of manures, seed multiplication, plant protection and intensive agricultural district programme.

In the Third Plan, irrigated area is expected to increase by 20 million acres. The increase in the consumption of nitrogenous fertilisers[1] will be three fold as against seven fold in the Second Plan. The increase in production of phosphatic manure[2] will be seven fold. An area of 150 million acres will be covered by seed multiplication schemes. Plant protection measures will be covering an area of 75 million acres. Concentrated effort, through co-operatives and panchayats, will be made to increase production in selected areas where conditions appear favourable.

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[1] Consumption of nitrogenous fertilisers in 1950-51 : 55,000 tons
in 1960 61 : 3,60,000 tons (anticipated)
in 1965-66 : One million (anticipated)

[2] Consumption of phosphatic fertiliser in 1960-61 : 67,000 tons (anticipated)
in 1965-66 : 4 to 6 lakhs (anticipated)

To realise in full the targets in the plan, proper care and attention must be bestowed upon the suggestions outlined below:

To raise agricultural output by 30-33% and foodgrains by 33-40%, agricultural production which rose at the annual rate of 2.8% in the First Plan and 4% in the Second upto 1958-59, would have to be raised at an average rate of 6% per annum.

The progress made so far in the agricultural sector, is encouraging in some respects but is still left much leeway to be covered. In many cases the achievements fell short of the targets. For example, it is anticipated that in regard to foodgrains, a level of 75 million tons will be reached by 1960-61 as against the revised target of 80.5 million tons under the Second Plan. In the Third Plan such a situation should not occur once again. So to achieve the target in full, it is necessary to achieve greater co-ordination among the departments of agriculture, irrigation, community development and animal husbandry. Efforts should be made for the execution of double cropping through fuller utilisation of irrigation potentials and the provision of necessary assistance and incentives to the cultivators. The yield per acre in different parts of the country must be increased with the help of the various facilities and improved practices, made available to each area in a co-ordinated fashion.

It is not enough if the village institutions such as panchayats and co-operatives, in the national production effort, meet, discuss problems and pass paper resolutions but to devise measures to ensure that in practice they stimulate whole village communities into action and constantly check individual efforts to see that the programmes decided upon, are carried out systematically and in the sustained manner. The Ministers and their colleagues in the States should also watch the activities of the village institutions in close quarters and see whether each farmer, with the help of the village institutions, in practice, contributes in greater measures, towards the total production efforts. In short galvanising the farming community to action, should be the primary objective in all the efforts of the Government.

The peasants in rural parts of the country often complain that the important supplies which government makes available to them do not come to them at the time when they are needed most. It is therefore imperative that the administrative machinery is to be streamlined and made more efficient. Otherwise the village production plans will be a futile exercise, leading to utter frustration.

In most cases, the Administrative personnel is not well equipped for the task. So to achieve *optimum benefits* from the Third Plan allocation of Rs. 625 crores for the Agricultural sector, it is of utmost importance that the Government should strive to train officers who speak always with the voice of authority and never try to get themselves reconciled with the spirit and the principle of democratic decentralisation, to acquire a new outlook. Refresher course might be organised for this purpose. On the one hand administrative personnel should be made to feel that they are the servants of the people, not masters and on the other hand, they should feel secure from unjustified and uniformed public criticism and from political pressure. The administration should be immune from political influence both from within and without.

No large programme of agricultural development could make any headway unless the actual cultivator is given his due status and impostance in society. The cultivator has to be made to feel that he gets a fair deal. No doubt he has come to realise the value of fertilisers and other techniques which will secure for him a much higher return from the land. Even with these developments, the tempo of agricultural development will not gain momentum, unless the farmer feels an active sense of participation and is entrusted to carry out the programmes.

Therefore an *Agricultural Commodities Advisory Committee* to advise the Government not only on price policy for agricultural commodities but also on the various programmes relating to agricultural production, is to be set up. The sooner the scheme is fructified, the better it will be for the country.

'Inflation', is an inevitable accompaniment of the process of rapid development. Therefore the country must accept some inflationary pressures and develop certain degree of inflation tolerance.

In a scheme to improve agriculture in a country like ours, with a view to achieve self-sufficiency in foodgrains production to the highest possible levels feasible, importance of family planning should not escape the notice of the framers of the plan and the plan must give a higher priority to it. Otherwise the attempt to achieve self-sufficiency in foodgrains, will be a futile exercise leading to frustration because however village production plans are properly framed and implemented, they may not be resulting in such an increase of foodgrains production that would be sufficient to meet the needs of ever increasing population. The Planning Commission has gone to face the fact that a population increase of ten million a year is more than the country can cope with. It is all the more surprising therefore that the Third Plan does not give a higher priority[3] to family planning. It provides for only 8,000 family planning centres by 1965-66 when what is needed is atleast one centre for every group of ten or twelve villages. Therefore it is better if the scheme of family planning receives still greater attention and importance.

A well defined scheme of land reform which includes the fixation of a ceiling on land holdings and redistribution of surplus land among landless labourers, laying down of a floor for holdings and thus making it impossible for uneconomic units to be cultivated and consolidation of holdings and co-operative farming in the sense of joint farming, should be implemented throughout the country as early as possible because radical changes in the social and psychological set up of the society are essential to achieve a high level of efficiency which the plan presumes. That is to say if the improvident peasant in the country is made free from the last traces of land lordism and then helped by the State, he can develop his productivity at a rate unimagined by our planners. This is the experience of New China where the peasant in three to four years has raised the productivity in an astonishing fashion.

Besides these, it should not be forgotten that to achieve the principal targets of agricultural production (a) the monsoon which is said to be proverbially irregular in India, should be regular and favourable, as it had been in the First two plans for the increase in agricultural production and (b) there must be planned effort on the part of the public at large. In the First two plans there was a sort of happy relation between the tiller and the owner of the land and the price of paddy was such that owners of the land could afford to plough back a portion of their increased income on the purchase of improved manure, seeds etc., for their land. But in the Third Plan to a greater extent possible, there cannot be any similar planned co-operative effort on the part of the owners of the land with the tiller of the soil who is increasingly becoming a threat to the owner of the land in the schemes of land reform.

Lastly if the principal targets of agricultural production are realised in the Third Plan, the success will not entirely be due to the speedy implementation of schemes of land reform but partly due to generous co-operation of Nature and partly due to the creation of better facilities for increased production and better marketing.

[3] In the Third Plan a sum of Rs. 25 crores (0.34 of the total outlay of the plan) was allocated against Rs. 4.07 crores (0.18% of the total outlay of the plan) in the Second Plan.

But the implementation of a well defined scheme of land reform is expected to create a favourable atmosphere for the increase of agricultural production and of purchasing power in the rural areas. It would be too early to anticipate the full economic and social effects of the attempts at implementation of land reforms legislation within the period of the Third Plan but it is certain that the experience may make the Planning Commission more circumspect in the later plans about improvements in the agricultural sector.

Conclusion:

If the Third Plan is implemented, bearing in mind the suggestions outlined above and working with courage and faith, there is no room for anxiety whether we can achieve self-sufficiency in foodgrains or not. The increase in production envisaged in the Third Plan would be obtained to some extent, through more land coming under the plough. But the bulk of the increase would come through more and better balanced inputs, more efficient crop and land use planning and improvement of agricultural techniques and organisation.

During the Third Plan period medium and minor irrigation, land reclamation and development of double cropping, fertilisers and manures, improved seeds, plant protection and improved practices are the major items which will be going into the programme of intensified cultivation. This programme of intensified cultivation will certainly take our country a long way in its attempt to tackle and solve the knotty food problem successfully. A concentrated, comprehensive and so-ordinated programme to be applied to 15 selected districts all over India, in addition to general programmes of development to be undertaken in other areas, would definitely contribute substantially towards the achievement of foodgrains target in the Third Plan.

APPENDIX I

Percentage Distribution of Outlay Under Major Heads in the Three Plan Periods

		I Plan	II Plan	III Plan
I	Agriculture, irrigation, community development and co-operation	33.0	21.3	23.1
II	Power, village and small industries, industries and minerals, transport and communication	42.0	60.0	56.9
III	Social services	23.0	18.7	17.2
IV	Inventories	—	—	2.8
V	Miscellaneous	2.0	—	—
	Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

APPENDIX II

Targets of Agricultural Production in the Third Plan

Commodity	Unit	Expected production in 1960-61	Target of total production in 1965-66	Increase in the total in production in 1965-66 over 60-61	% increase in production in 1965-66 over 60-61
(1) Foodgrains	Million units	75.0	100-105	25-30	33-40
(2) Oil seeds	Million units	7.2	9.2-9.5	2- 2.3	28-32
(3) Sugarcane	Million units	7.2	9- 9.2	1.8-2	25-28
(4) Cotton	Million bales	5.4	7.2	1.8	33
(5) Jute	Million bales	5.5	6.5	1	18
(6) Coconut	Million nuts	4,500	5,750	1,250	28
(7) Arecanut	Thousand tons	93	100	7	8
(8) Cashewnuts	Thousand tons	73	150	77	106
(9) Cardamom	Thousand tons	29	30	1	3
(10) Pepper	Thousand tons	2.26	2.62	0.36	16
(11) Lac	Thousand tons	50	61	12	24
(12) Tobacco	Thousand tons	300	325	25	8
(13) Tea	Million Lbs.	725	850	125	17
(14) Coffee	Thousand Tons	45	80	35	78
(15) Rubber	Thousand tons	26.4	45	18.6	71
all commodities	Thousand tons	—	—	—	30-33

RURAL SOCIOLOGY

By: D. Sarathy

Definition And Its Objectives

RURAL sociology is the youngest amongst all sciences. It has started taking roots and is slowly but securely spreading itself in the various parts of the world including India. As in the case of every young science, especially of a young social science, a great controversy has taken place over its definition and scope. Some basic agreement exists among the men engaged in this subject over its difinition, scope and objectives in spite of a wide divergence of views. The primary objective of rural sociology is to make a scientific, systematic and comprehensive study of the rural social organisation, in its economic, social and political aspects. Much importance it being given to this branch of science in the recent time since our nation wholly depends on the villages for its advancement economically as well as politically. Dr. Rabindra Nath Tagore, in this connection, has aptly said, "In the keeping of the village lies the cradle of the race."

Need For Its Study In India

The need for the study in this branch of sociology, is felt in India because, India is a classic land of agriculture and till recently the Indian intellectual aristocracy was mainly concerned with the problems of urban reconstruction, without realising the fact that the soul of India is to be found in the villages and not in towns. Secondly, the unique agrarian socio-economic structure of India experienced a decisive transformation as a result of the impact of the British conquest and rule, and thus the villages represented a closed society based on economic autarchy and social life, governed by caste and community feelings. The Indian agrarian economic is, at present in a state of acute crisis and has resulted in the unbearable misery of the rural people. A soluction to such a crisis as this is vitally necessary not only for eliminating villages from the thraldom of poverty and penury but also for building up a more prosperous national economy.

Rural Reconstruction

Rural Reconstruction is the immediate step that is to be thought of in the improvement of the villages. But, of course, in such an attempt many obstacles have to be faced. The greatest single obstacle is the illiteracy of the villagers and unless education spreads among the rural folks, any policy of rural reconstruction is bound to be slow. So, it is the education which is doubly important in the task of uplift of the rural mass of people.

The level of production and its distribution among the villagers is another line of rural reconstruction. Rural society is based predominantly on agriculture. Village agriculture is distinguishable easily from urban industry by the fact that it is based on direct extraction from the Nature by man. The material prosperity of the society is assessed by the level of production. The primitive nature of agriculture and the resultant low level of production leads to the general prevalence of poverty among the rural population. The production can be increased by adopting better methods and advanced techniques in agriculture by way of employing tractors, applying fertilizers and using better evolved seeds. But no amount of remedial measures of this nature will produce satisfactory result unless much attention is paid towards freeing the land from pressure. Other occupations like cottage industries, weaving and spinning etc, must be given encouragement by which the pressure on land can be relieved. Remedies like a change in the Laws of Inheritance, consolidation of holdings, land ceiling and co-operative farming will no doubt bring about definite improvement in Indian Agriculture.

Health of the rural masses in India, in general, deserves more attention. Better food habits, child care and development, better sanitation of the surroundings and personal hygiene must be introduced to the rural areas by which a healthier and a stronger Rural India may be built up.

Rural Change

Many factors as well as forces either of conscious or unconscious nature bring about a marked change in the rural society. Among these factors, the important ones are natural factors like floods, earthquakes etc, which have disastrous effect on the flora and fowna of the zone as well as considerable influence on the economic life of the people, and technological factors like inventions of new tools better means of transport and communications, new chemicals etc. result in the change in the life of rural masses economically, socially and politically as well.

The conscious methods that are responsible for the transformation of the rural sect include demonstrative methods, compulsory methods, contact methods, educational methods, etc, are being carried out successfully in India.

Conclusion

To us in India, Rural Reconstrution is practically National Reconstruction. Having nine-tenth of her population living in villages it is no wonder her National Reconstruction is bound up with Rural Reconstruction. It is worth mentioning here, what the Father of Nation said regarding Rural India, "I would say that if the village perishes, India will perish too. India will be no more India and her mission in the world will be lost". An attempt to a co-ordinated and systematic study of Indian rural sociology leads to scientific understanding of life processes and to evolve ways and means to bring about reconstruction of a well advanced economy for India.

IMPACT OF IRRIGATION ON EMPLOYMENT IN INDIAN AGRICULTURE

By: P. V. John

IRRIGATION as a means to increase employment in agriculture, as distinct from that which directly emanates in the construction of the irrigation projects is long recognised. This may be in two ways: In the first place, irrigation helps the cultivator to adopt more intensive forms of cultivation requiring additional man power. In this process he may either continue to cultivate the same crop or shift on to a new crop which generally is high yielding and in many cases calling forth more labour.

It may also be that new irrigational facilities help him to bring under the plough land hitherto left barren because of the absence of irrigation facilities. This is the second possibility for larger employment in the agricultural sector, through irigation. A much similar possibility is that irrigation would help to cultivate the land more number of times than was hitherto done.

The first set of opportunities that of cultivating the land more intensively or of shifting on to other crops which call forth more labour, we may call intensive effect of irrigation. Additional employment created due to extension of cultivation to areas hitherto uncultivated or increase in the frequency of cultivation, both as a result of irrigation, we term the extensive effect. It is possible in principle to distinguish the two effects though it may not be so easy

to make the distinction while measuring the volume of employment added due to increase in irrigation facilities.

The need for larger irrigation facilities is generally viewed from the point of increase in output that may come about. This bias is due to the shortage of agricultural produces in meeting the requirements of the country. Out of a total area of 806 million acres of land surface in India, the net sown area is about 322 million acres which is roughly 45 percent. Of this, only about 58 million acres or roughly 20 percent is irrigated. The remaining 80 percent of the cultivated area depends on rainfall. This dependence of a large proportion of the cultivated area on rainfall introduces elements of uncertainty and risk in cultivation to a very large extent.

On an average we get 42 inches of rainfall per year in India. Variations from this normal, of course, take place. For instance, in 1917 it was as high as 59 inches, while in 1899 it was as low as 34 inches. However, there is considerable variations between different regions in the amount of rainfall received. In this respect India could be divided into five rainfall belts: 1) Yellow Belt (receiving below 15 inches), 2) Brown Belt (receiving between 15 and 30 inches), 3) Light Green Belt (receiving between 30 and 50 inches), 4) Dark Green Belt (receiving between 50 and 75 inches, 5) Blue Belt (exceeding 75 inches). Of the five belts, the first two namely the yellow belt and the brown belt together occupy about one-third of the area, the third one light green belt occupy another one-third and the rest one-third of the area accounts for the dark green belt and the blue belt.[1]

Generally 40 inches of rain is sufficient for growing most of the crops.[2] Where the rains exceed this there is likely to be surplus moisture in the soil, and where it is less cultivation will have to depend mainly on irrigation. The light green belt which has a rainfall between 30 inches and 50 inches always faces the danger that the rains may fall below the normal requirement in some of the years. This belt covers a large area—nearly one-third—and the variation in rainfall in this belt is likely to bring about destruction of crops and famine conditions.

Besides the variation in the amount of rainfall there are other risks too if cultivation depends entirely on rainfall. The rains in a particular year may be delayed making cultivation difficult or impossible. It may also be spread over to the inconvenience of the farmers so that they do not get water when it is required or get it when not required. This large dependence upon rainfall affect agricultural output and through that the income of the agriculturist. It may also cause fluctuations in employment of both the cultivators and their hired workers.

Employment Situation

The employment situation in Indian agriculture is far from satisfactory. It is estimated that the total population of India is about 408 million. Of this, roughly 70 percent or about 286 million people are dependent upon agriculture. On a very rough approximation we may say that about one-fifth of the total population dependent on agriculture is in a position to work. Thus there are about 57 million people who will have to find employment in the agricultural sector.

As against this, it was estimated in a recent study that at the existing state of employment and productivity Indian agriculture provided employment for about 35 million man labour for 310 days in a year.[3] The definition of man

[1] Gopalaswamy, R.A., Census of India, 1951, Vol. 1 Pt. I-A Report, (Delhi: 1953) p. 11.
[2] Mamoria, C.B., Agricultural Problems of India, (Allahabad: 1958) p. 14.
[3] John, P.V., "Some Aspects of the Structure of Indian Agricultural Economy: 1948-58"—Ph.D. Thesis, to be submitted to Delhi University.

labour adopted in that study is the equivalent of labour put in by an adult male worker for 8 hours a day. Since the working force of 57 million actually consists of a certain number of women and children we could inflate the employment potential to, say, 40 million. Thus there are approximately 17 million people who are yet to find employment if the employment is counted as 8 hour labour for 310 days in a year. Part of this volume of unemployment is exhibited through fully unemployed persons, while a large slice is accounted for by seasonal and other types of underemployment in the sector.

The third five-year plan that is to be launched, no doubt, recognises the existence of a certain volume of unemployment, but unfortunately does not provide for what we may call the back log of unemployment. Not only this, the plan does not except to provide fully even for the number that would be added to the employable population during the plan period. One point that would help to give breathing space to planners is the absence of the consciousness of unemployment or under-employment among a large mass of the agriculturists. This is mainly due to the fact that the larger size of unemployment is in the form of seasonal or other types of underemployment and the farmer considers that this has to be shared by him as part of the game.

Another and probably more important factor from the point of view of planning is that the mass of agriculturists who are mainly rural folk have little or no consciousness of their economic rights. The religious and other social conditions of the country are largely responsible for this. Such a state of affairs, however, cannot be expected to go on for long. With the spread of literacy and improvement in other social conditions the agriculturist would soon realise his exact position in the economy of the country. Before he realises this, it is essential to eke out ways and means that would, if not solve the problem completely, at least reduce its magnitude.

Additional Employment Through Irrigation

This article aims at assessing quantitatively, with reference to certain representative areas, though in a very rough way, the possibility of increasing employment in agriculture as a result of extension of irrigation. The reliability of the estimate is limited because of the absence of data covering the entire country. The modest beginning in this respect has become possible because of the publication of the results of the Farm Management Studies.[4]

In Farm Management Studies besides other things, detailed analysis of costs and output are available for certain crops separately for irrigated and unirrigated cultivation. The Farm Management Studies were based on two methods namely, Cost Accounting and Survey, in each of the regions included in the programme.

Given below in Table I is the list of crops selected in this article from the different region:[5]

[4] Min. of Food and Agriculture, Govt. of India, (New Delhi) Farm Management Studies are available in a published form. For the regions of West Bengal, Madras, Bombay, U.P. and East Punjab for the year 1954-55. They relate to studies carried out on two contiguous districts in each of the regions mentioned. The studies inclusive of M.P. (of which the report has not become available) is done in such a way that all the regional studies put together would be representative of the country as a whole.

[5] Crops in West Bengal were not accounted for because the necessary break-ups between irrigated and unirrigated areas are not available in the report for that region.

TABLE I

List of Crops selected from different regions

State	Crops
1. Madras	Jowar, Cotton
2. Bombay	
i. Ahmednagar Dist.	Jowar, Wheat, Gram
ii. Nasik Dist.	Wheat, Gram
3. U.P.	Wheat
4. Punjab	Wheat, Wheat-Gram

In the year for which the Farm Management Studies are available the proportionate contribution of the States mentioned to the total output of the selected crops were as given in Table II.

TABLE II

State	Crop	Output expressed as % of All-India output
Madras	Jowar	11.9
	Cotton	7.1
Bombay	Jowar	39.0
	Wheat	7.1
	Gram	3.7
U.P.	Wheat	36.9
Punjab	Wheat	21.8

Table II shows that the crops selected have received significant representation considering the large proportion of these crops produced in the States we are considering. The analysis to follow is based on a very important assumption that except for irrigation there is on the whole no other difference between the irrigated and unirrigated land under a particular crop. Such differences, for instance, as difference in fertility etc are by assumption non-existent which may be on the whole true, because there are equal possibilities for the irrigated as well as non-irrigated land to be less or more fertile.

We would now proceed to look at the number of workers employed per acre on irrigated and unirrigated land in various crops and in the regions selected. These details are given in Table III:

TABLE III

Employment of man-power on irrigated unirrigated land (man days per acre)

State/Crop	Irrigated	Unirrigated
Madras		
Jowar	55.25	45.28
Cotton	75.4	15.3
Bombay:		
Ahmednagar Dist		
Jowar	40.8	11.0
Wheat	58.7	23.1
Gram	35.1	15.3
Nasik Dist.		
Wheat	45.9	10.3
Gram	25.9	9.0
U.P.		
Wheat	43.0	28.6
Punjab		
Wheat	28.6	13.7
Wheat-Gram	20.5	15.2

The results given in Table III were further integrated by taking weighted averages of intensity of employment with regard to different crops in the different regions. These are reproduced in Table IV:

TABLE IV

Crop-wise employment on Irrigated|unirrigated land (man-days per acre)

Crops	Irrigated	Unirrigated
Wheat	35.3	22.7
Jowar	46.3	12.6
Gram	29.1	11.6
Cotton	75.4	15.3
Wheat-Gram	20.5	16.4
All Crops	32.3	16.4

It could be seen from the above table that the employment on irrigated land is invariably much larger than on unirrigated land. The point that could be viewed with emphasis here is that, apart from other advantages that go with irrigation, there is a potentially large scope for employment that comes about with irrigation. From the data available it is possible to make certain generalisation if we make certain assumptions considering the fact that the crops selected occupy important positions in the production structure of Indian agriculture and that all of them show a similar tendency of much larger employment when the area is irrigated. It could safely be said that irrigation would increase agricultural employment on hitherto unirrigated land to an extent of 2 to 2½ times the present level of employment with regard to some of the crops.

Estimated Increase in Employment Potential

It now remains to be enquired at this stage as to what is the extent of the area on which the employment could be increased. Recalling an earlier statement, approximately, one-third of the total land surface in India receive rainfall over 50 inches. As was stated earlier these regions do not need any further irrigation. Of the remaining, about one-third of the area receive rainfall between 30 and 50 inches. In these regions there is always the risk arising out of uncertainty of rainfall. The remaining one-third receive rainfall below 30 inches. The regions that fall in this category could be divided into two types. There are those areas in which the rainfall is below 15 inches and those in which it is between 15 and 30 inches. On a rough approximation one may say that the area under each of these could be considered as half and half. In regions where rainfall is below 15 inches, no cultivation whatsoever is now possible. By our assumption, it is about one-sixth of the total land surface. Since the estimate to follow excludes the employment potential on such lands which are not under the plough and could be brought under it when irrigation is available, we have to exclude this area. Also is to be excluded the area in which the rainfall is over 50 inches. The area that has to be thus included is only about one-half of the total land surface.

According to official estimates about 322 million acres of land were under cultivation in 1956-57. If it is assumed that the cultivated area is apportioned among the different rainfall regions, excluding those having less than 15 inches of rain, in more or less the same proportions it would mean that the 322 million acres of cultivated land is spread over five-sixth of the land surface. Connecting this to our earlier discussions it can be seen that about two-fifth of this cultivated area does not require any further irrigation facilities. Extension of irrigation need therefore be confined to the remaining three-fifth or nearly 192 million acres only.

On the other hand, it has been estimated that the total irrigation potential of the country is near about 150 million acres.[6] This may naturally be inclusive of areas in which there

[6] Second Five-Year Plan, Planning Commission, Govt. of India, (Delhi: 1956) p. 324.

is no need of irrigation, or where there is no cultivation at all for the reason that rainfall is below 15 inches. The tendency would be for larger irrigation potential in areas with a heavy rainfall than in areas with lesser rainfall. However, we may place on a rough approximation that nearly two-third of the irrigation potential is in the areas to which the present analysis is related. Thus the irrigation potential in the areas studied is about 106 million acres. Of this about 62 million acres are already irrigated (net area). Granting the various assumptions, therefore, there is still scope for irrigating a little over 40 million acres, in the already cultivated area.

The weighted averages obtained in Table IV show that on an average employment on irrigated land is about 97% more than that on unirrigated land. If to the numerous assumptions that we have already made one more could be added it is possible to obtain an estimate, though very rough, of the approximate volume of employment that would be created on the already cultivated land that can be irrigated.

The assumption is that the average employment on irrigated land within the cultivated area of 322 million acres is more or less equal to the weighted averages we got for the five different crops included in Table IV. If this is so the 40 million acres to which irrigation could be extended within the cultivated area alone would provide employment of 2 million additional man-years. Since such employment is likely to include women and children the additional employment provided may be a number anywhere between, say, 2.5 and 3 million workers. This includes only the potentialities within the cultivated areas.

But there is nothing that need prevent extension of irrigation and therefore of cultivation to areas which are getting less than 15 inches of rainfall. In fact, the scope would be wider here. Since the topographical break up of such regions is not readily available, we hesitate to further extend our estimates to these genuinely potential regions.

CASE OF PUBLIC SECTOR IN INDIA

By: Tikam Chand Mehta

ECONOMICS is an evergrowing science. Once it was an accepted principle that ideal Economic development of a country is possible only through the principle of *laissez faire*. But during the last forty years the pendulam of Political and Economic thought has moved away from the extremes of *laissez faire* and unplanned Economy towards State control and planning. Hence, now position is different and people give recognition to other Economic isms.

In fact people are now inclined to accept anything which is not *laissez faire*. The defects and drawbacks of private enterprise under capitalistic society have been so grave and far reaching that even the countries like U.S.A., U.K. and W. Germany have been forced to change their Economic policy. Now these countries have adopted the principle of Mixed Economy where private enterprise is allowed subject to State control and planning.

Importance of Nationalisation is growing fast. Socialist countries believe in Nationalisation of all the Industries. Even the ardent followers of *laissez faire* (Capitalist countries) are inclined to this great Economic ism. In India, we have accepted the principle of Mixed Economy. Socialistic pattern of Society has assumed the place as a basis of planning and the very thing

has resulted in increased importance of public finance which is directly concerned with various public enterprises.

Why Public Sector?

Public enterprise is indispensable for the success of Economic planning in under-developed countries. Due to some inherent difficulties private sector alone is not sufficient for the speedy and balanced Economic development of a country.

We are living in the age of planning. This is an age of Economic competition. Economic conditions are largely responsible for Social and Political upheavals. All the countries are running madly behind Economic development. At the same time in the under-developed countries like ours, where Agriculture is still a most important occupation of the people and per capita income of the masses is the lowest in the world, Economic prosperity cannot be left to the benevolence of private industrialists.

We have accepted the goal of Socialistic pattern of Society. And important method of achieving this goal is obviously the development of Public Sector taking aside progressive Taxation which has already been burdened much. And now the country is looking with more hopeful eyes towards this method.

There are some public utility services which can be run smoothly on the National level only by public authorities viz. Post and Telegraph office, Railways etc.

Public sector is also important from the Social Welfare point of view. Sometimes it becomes necessary for the Government to take some work for the welfare of the society viz. free Milk supply, construction of parks etc.

It is also necessary for Defence purposes.

Balanced Economic development of a country necessitates many industries to be taken up by the Government.

It is also necessary from the functional Public finance point of view. Unemployment is the greatest problem before almost all the under-developed countries. And under Public authorities, Industries can be so organised as to provide maximum possible employment opportunities.

Industries can be organised under the Public Sector in the following ways:—

A. *By running separate Government department*—Some Industries are managed like a separate Government department. Here Industry remains under the direct control of the legislature viz. Post and Telegraps, Telephones, Railways etc.

B. *Through a Statutary Corporation*—Under this system separate corporations are created through legislations which lay down the rules of management. Such corporation can easily run on business like methods because there is no direct control of legislature on day-to-day working. But there is one great drawback of the system that it is not subject to direct control of legislature hence it cannot control the activities effectively and public money might be misused. Important of such corporations are Damodar Valley Corporation, Reserve Bank of India, Industrial Finance Corporation, Hindustan Aircraft Factory etc. Tennessee Valley Corporation (T.V.C.) in U.S.A. is another important example.

C. *By Registering as a joint-stock company*—Under this scheme separate company is registered under the Companies Act with full or more than 50% Government shares. This method naturally, enjoys all the advantages of a joint stock company without indulging in any special law. Important examples are Sindri Fertilizers and Chemicals with 100% central Government shares, Hindustan Ship-yard Ltd. where 2|3 and 1|3 of the shares are held by the Government and Scindias respectively. In case of Hindustan Machine Tools Ltd. 85% of the shares are owned by the Centre. In

Hindustan Housing Factory Ltd. the ratio of shares is equally—fifty fifty percent between Government and Basakha-sing-Wallenbeng.

D. *Board of Management type*—Sometimes the management is under a Board constituting of partly official and partly non-official members functioning through a general manager, eg. Transport services in some States.

E. *Certain other ways*—Some works may be managed by local Bodies. There may also be joint management by the Government and private enterpreneurs in some cases.

Each form of management has got certain advantages and disadvantages to its credit. But the first three forms are getting much prominence these days. This all is due to their special merits and have got evergrowing tendency. But the joint stock company method is perhaps the best form from the standpoint of efficiency. Such companies can easily be run on business like methods. But such method cannot be suited for all the Industries. Form of management should be decided after looking to the merits and requirements of a particular Industry.

Industrial policy resolution of 1956 has opened wide field for the growth of Public Industries. According to this resolution Industries have been classified into three categories.

1. Under the first schedule 17 Industries have been included for which Government is solely responsible for future development viz. Arms and Ammunitions, Iron and Steel, Railways, Post and Telegraphs etc.

2. Under the second schedule 12 Industries have been included for the development of which State will progressively participate viz. Road Transport, Shipping etc.

3. Rest of the Industries have been placed in the third schedule which have been left to Private Sector.

The importance of Public Sector is progressively increasing in the five-year plans. Under the First five-year plan Rs. 100 crs. were allotted for Industries and Mining. In the current plan main emphasis has been given to Industries and Rs. 617 crs. have been allotted for the development of large and Medium Scale Industries. Similarly in the Third Plan Rs. 1500 crs. have been allocated for large and Medium Scale Industries.

Important Industries under the Public Sector are as follows:—

1. *Iron and Steel*—Three huge Industries have been started with an initial capacity of 1 Million Iron ignots each during the Second plan. These have been established at Bhilai (M. P.), Rourkhela (Orissa) and Durgapur (E. Bengal). These have almost started production. By 1960-61 these will have 2.3 Million Tons of steel producing and 6.8 Million Tons of Pig Iron producing capacity, Rs. 439 crs. have been allotted for their development during Second plan. In the draft third plan allocation of Rs. 571 crs. have been made for this purpose. And the production of finished steel is expected to be 6.9 Million Tons by 1965-66. During the third plan period capacity of the existing industries will almost be doubled and above all fourth Steel Plant will be established at Bokharo (Bihar) with American collaboration of 2.5 million Tons capacity.

2. *Fertilizers*—Sindhri Fertilizer Factory, the biggest in India, produced 6.6 lakh tons of Nitrogen by 1955-56. One more factory has been established attached to the Rourkhela Iron and Steel Industry. The Targets for the third plan are 8 Lakh Tons of Nitrogen and 4 Lakh Tons of Phosphetic fertilizers. Sites for factories in U. P., M. P. Mysore and Gujarat are under consideration. The setting up of factories at Durgapur, Nazarkatiya and Kothagudium and at a site in Rajasthan have been approved. From October, Hindustan Chemical and fertilizers and Sindri fertilizers will be emerged. Under the former three projects

are under construction. These are Nangal fertilizers, Trombay fertilizers and Assam fertilizers.

3. *Ship-building*—Hindustan Shipyard has been established with an initial capital of 6 crs. at Vishakhapatnam. During 1955-56 Ships worth 50,000 G.R.T. Capacity were built. One more ship-building yard at Cochin is under consideration.

4. *Machine Tool factories*—Hindustan Machine Tools factory at Bangalore is working with its full capacity. There are a few machine tool factories proposed for the Third plan.

Other important Industries are as follows:—

5. D.D.T. Factories.
6. Hindustan Cables.
7. Chitranjan Locomotive Works.
8. Integral Coach factory.
9. Indian Telephone Industries.
10. Teleprinter factory.
11. Paper Mills.
12. Hindustan Aircraft Factory.
13. Heavy Electricals.
14. Hindustan Antibiotic.

Capacity of all the above Industries will be increased or new Industries will be established during the Third Plan. Besides this a Zinc Smelter at Udaipur, Copper Smelter at Khetri, Oil Refineries at Nunwati and Barauni and Durgapur Mining Machinery plant are other important proposed Public Sector Industries for the next five-year Plan.

The above discussion points to the ever increasing importance of Public Sector. But there are certain drawbacks which hamper their proper and desired growth. Many Industries owing to these drawbacks run in losses. Government should take firm steps to check these drawbacks which come in way of smooth progress of Public Sector Industries. These are as follows:—

1. *Lack of proper estimtes*—There should be well planned and proper estimates prior to the construction of any scheme. Because it is generally seen that revision is made in the original plan of construction and sometimes major additions and alterations are made. This all results in waste of public funds, inability of the Government to start the project in proper time and loss of faith of the public.

2. Government should not publish magnified targets which are very difficult to achieve within the prescribed time. It is one of the grave defects of our planning which results in public resentment and loss of sympathy.

3. Mismanagement, corruption and Red-tapism:—It has become an exception rather than a rule to find Industries without these hazards. Government should make all-out efforts to curb these hazards. High powered audit parties, check on regionalism and selection of proper personnel for particular jobs are some of the measures in this connection.

4. Extravagancy is another equally important giant to cope with. Generally undesired delegations are sent abroad e.g. non-technical hands going to other countries for studying some technical aspect of a project. Similarly, more than necessary persons are called from developed countries in the name of technical personnel. Expenditure on unnecessary dignity, pomp and show and unnecessary importance to publication and advertisement are other equally important avenues of expenditure. These all lead to heavy unnecessary burden on public exchequer and demand early consideration.

5. One more criticism is levied against public Industries that sometimes these hamper the proper growth of Industries under private sector. It is possible when both the sectors have same type of interest and public sector receives special concessions and privileges from the Government. Centre should keep a watchful eye on such things.

6. Public Sector should not be encouraged where production is possible through medium and cottage Industries because latter provides for more employment opportunities.

7. Sometimes more than desired importance is given to some region in order to satisfy the political whims and regional demands. This hampers balanced economic development of the Nation which is the Economic necessity of the day. Though Government are aware of this fact, they should consider and reconsider in terms of Balanced Economic Development before starting any new under-taking.

Progress and success of Public sector can be multiplied if these defects could be checked. Government are always trying for the same and it can be concluded that Public Sector has got bright future in India.

RURAL SOCIOLOGY RECREATION

By: K. Rajgopalan

SPORTS officials in U.S.S.R. made a country-wide search for talent in the recent past to build a formidable team of athletes to represent their country in the Olympic games at Rome. According to reports the remotest village did not escape their notice. In U.S.S.R. as in several other countries of the west a net-work of sports organisations and recreational centres spread—all over the country cater to the needs of the people. They do not depend upon a few crowded cities and industrial centres for the supply of sportsmen to represent their countries in international competitions.

Though much has been done in our country in the past few years for the improvement of games and sports, the recreation and play-programmes are yet to reach the majority of our countrymen who live in villages. Outside schools and colleges, opportunities for the persuit of games and recreation are very limited. Our play programme, as it is, is confined to a few populous cities and industrial centres. We rely mainly on our armed forces, the railways and a few big industrial under-takings for the supply of sportsmen to represent us in international competitions. The future of Indian sports depends upon our ability to harness for our cause the—millions of youths in our rural areas who are at present devoid of recreation. Sportsmen who represent us abroad are at present drawn from a fraction of India's population. The standard of our performance in international sports is bound to improve if we exploit fully the talents available in our country.

Apart from the point of international competition a comprehensive scheme of Physical Education embracing thousands of our villages is essential for the physical well-being of our nation. The drab and monotonous life of millions of our peasants needs recreation and enjoyment derived out of a healthy persuit of games and sports. Years of alien rule and the advent of civilisation have disrupted the conventional pattern of life in India's villages wherein opportunities for recreation and colourful diversions existed in appreciable measure.

Until recent times almost all Hindu festivals were accompanied by physical feats and displays, SILAMBAM (stick-play), wrestling, bull-fighting or chasing, public games, folk dancing, community songs and various other enjoyable activities. In ancient and medieval India, independent village communities took keen interest in providing recreational activities for their inmates. Such activities were part and parcel of the festivals and religious ceremonies performed by the village-folk. Specially in South India the temple was the nerve-centre for the social life of the community and the

festivals and celebrations connected with it provided valuable means of recreation to the people.

Hindu festivals from times immemorial have been a source of amusement and exercise for millions of people in this country. Their gaiety, colour and vivacity have never been surpassed by any nation on earth. Mountstuart Elphinstone the celebrated British historian of India remarks. "these (festivals) have a strong resemblance to fairs in England and exhibit the same whirling machines and the same amusements and occupations. But no assemblage in England can give a notion of the lively effect produced by the prodigious concourse of people in white dresses and bright-coloured scrafs and turbans......The Hindus enter into the amusements of these meetings with infinite relish and show every sign of peaceful activity and enjoyment."

Pilgrimages undertaken by our village-folk in large numbers provided them with excellent means of physical exercise and enjoyment. Orthodox sections of our community yet believe that pilgrimages undertaken by rail or motor cars are not truly efficacious. They prefer to travel by foot. The idea that a pilgrimage ought to provide bodily exercise for the participant is yet alive in our country.

And now, what have we provided for our rural folk as means of recreation and exercise in the place of the above traditional physical activities which are rapidly falling into disuse? Few municipalities and fewer Panchayats in our country have provided adequate play-facilities for the people who live under their care. Millions of our men and children in the vast number of our villages live and die without experiencing a single hour of joyful play and recreation. This needs immediate remedy.

Our Government at the centre as well as in the states have various schemes for the uplift of villages. But I believe that they should give a lot of more attention to the recreational needs of our rural population under their community development programme.

In organising a programme of recreation and games for our village-folk, we should take care that it appeals to the sentiments and local traditions of the people.. For instance the game of KABBADI OR NONDI (hopping game) will meet with more response than games like Cricket or Hockey which involve equipment.

It should be obligatory on the part of all municipalities and Panchayats in the country to maintain a play-field with a running track and to cater to the recreational needs of their inhabitants. Games like Volleyball, Kabaddi, Kho-Kho and Atya Patya which involve limited area and equipment could be popularised among the village-folk. There are scores of other small-area games suitable for different age-groups. Panchyats and municipalities can employ the services of whole-time or part-time Physical Education Teachers to guide and teach the people in the rules of the different games.

Above are the means to attract the millions of our villages to participate effectively in the sports activities of our country and thereby increase the strength and physical well-being of our people. India cannot in future hope to make any lasting impression on international athletics or games by eschewing from her sports-programme the majority of her countrymen. International success for Indian sports would be the natural corollary of increased playing opportunities to the masses of our country.

Ironically the people left out at present are those who are basically better suited to receive the benefit of training and coaching in different games and sports activities. For, the village youths who live in open air and greener surroundings should do better than those who live in smoke-filled and congested cities. It is high time we drew the talents from our villages and unless we do so we will be utterly outpaced by nations who are bringing to bear the force of their entire population on international competitions.

DEVELOPMENT OF HANDLOOM INDUSTRY IN INDIA

By: Madhava Jaoolkar

HANDLOOM industry has an ancient and glorious past in the history of National Industrial development. This industry is not only ancient but is also of great importance and significance. Even before the invention of modern machines India's population was well-versed in the art of cloth making. It is gratifying to note that in the earliest days of handloom industry also its most outstanding feature was the greatest skill in the manufacture of fine cloth. The Dacca Muslin had earned world-wide fame. It is really surprising that human hands were preparing such a fine cloth. Thus it is clear that even in its early days handloom industry in India had reached perfection.

Its Place in Indian Economic

Handloom industry holds a place of vital importance in Indian economy. It is of considerable significance from the view-point of providing large scale employment in the rural areas on one hand and solving the problem of cloth supply for the millions on the other hand. The scope of this industry is very wide and practically in every part of the country handlooms are working and are manufacturing cloth. This industry has witnessed the largest development in the Madras state which possesses 25 to 30% of the total number of handlooms of the country. According to the available statistics the total number of handlooms in the Indian union is about 28.7 lakhs which maintain a population of over a crore of people as against a bare 8 lakhs employed by the Textile Mill Industry in the country. The above figures are enough to reveal the important role occupied by the handloom industry in Indian Economy. Hence it is very essential and at the same time is in the economic interest of the nation that the handloom industry should be developed to its fullest extent.

Its Development:—

In pre-independence India handloom industry was rather neglected. No considerable efforts were made for its survival and preservation. Only since the implementation of the 1st five-year plan this industry has attracted a greater degree of attention. Till a few years back the handloom industry was regarded more or less as an unfortunate and unnoticed orphan but the 1st five-year plan recognised the vital importance of this industry and consequently the programmes of its survival and expansion were taken up in hand.

1st Five-Year Plan:—

The authors of the 1st five-year plan tried to improve the status and the vitality of handloom. As a result of this the handloom industry which was in a difficult situation in the year 1950-51 received a considerable support afterwards in the 1st plan period. In the 1st five-year plan out of the total allocation of Rs. 31.2 crores for village and small scale industries Rs. 11.1 crores were spent for the development of handloom industry. It is beyond doubt that the handloom industry made a definite progress in the 1st plan period. Production of handloom cloth increased from 7420 lakhs of yards in 1950-51 to 13540 lakhs of yards in the year 1954-55. Similarly the number of handlooms included in the co-operative fold increased from 626,119 in 1950-51 to 788,664 in 1953-54 and to 878,984 in 1954-55.

Allocation in the Second Plan:—

In the second five-year plan an amount of Rs. 200 crores is allocated for small scale and village industries. Out of this Rs. 59.5 crores are to be spent for the development of handloom industry during the plan-period. A village and small scale Industries committee known as Karve

committee was appointed by the Planning Commission for preparing definite proposals for the development of those industries. This committee recommended an expenditure of Rs. 88 crores on handloom industry including cotton, silk as well as wool weaving. But only a provision of Rs. 59.5 crores could be made in the 2nd five-year plan for the development programme of handloom industry which includes an outlay of Rs. 56.0 crores for cotton weaving. Rs. 1.5 crores for silk weaving, and Rs. 2.0 crores for wool weaving Part of those development programmes will be implemented by the centre and remaining by the states. It is proposed that development schemes regarding handloom amounting to Rs. 1.5 crores will be implemented by the centre and the schemes amounting to Rs. 58.0 crores by the various states.

Targets of the Second Plan:—

On the basis of 25% increase in the national income estimated to accrue by the end of the second five-year plan it is expected that the demand for cloth will also increase and it is certain that the handloom industry will have to produce more cloth during the plan period as compared to the last 1 or 2 years. It is estimated by the village and small scale industries committee, that handloom industry will be required to produce an additional quantity of 17000 lakhs of yards by the end of 1960-61. According to the views of this committee this additional quantity will be the maximum limit to which the total demand could be expected to rise during the plan period.

To meet this demand it is proposed to increase the number of handlooms in the co-operative field from 10 lakhs to 14.5 lakhs by the end of 1960-61. It is estimated that by adopting this means about 2 lakhs of idle looms will come in use and will help to increase the output of production. Production programme of the handloom industry aims at ensuring by the end of the 2nd plan period the working of about 20 lakh handlooms for about 300 days in the year.

State Policy and Assistance:—

The development of handloom industry is being supported by the state aid as well as by appropriate state policy. The All India Handloom Board is helping a lot in the improvement and advancement of handloom industry. Every care is being taken to support this industry with finance and credit facilities. In the same way researches, training of personnel and other technical assistance and improvements are also being introduced. The development schemes of the 2nd plan provide mainly for measures of assistance to handlooms falling in co-operative field. The Government gives financial assistance to these co-operative societies. Nearly 75 to 83½% of share capital is provided by the Government in the form of loans and the rest of the amount is invested by the weavers. As far as working capital is concerned Government provides an amount of Rs. 200/- for each cotton loom and Rs. 500|- for each silk loom. These co-operative societies also get help regard ing supply of raw material, technical advise and loans and grants etc. The Reserve Bank of India also assists these societies by granting short-termed and long-termed loans.

Concludingly it can be safely said that handloom industry is firmly advancing and developing and is bringing about a revolutionary betterment in our rural economy. With the joint efforts and the co-operation of the weavers, public, and the state it can be hoped that the handloom industry will ceaselessly flourish and re-attain its past glory, which it once enjoyed. By the development of handloom industry the concept of decentralised production will also come to be true and our villages—the smallest units of the country—will also unite becoming helpful for the industrial advancement of the nation which will ultimately bring about a richer, fuller and happier life for the people.

SHIVIRS IN COMMUNITY PROJECTS

By: Pramod Makoday

THIS is an era of 'Shivirs.' Shivirs are organised for Students, Youths, Panchas of village Panchayats, Women, and even Village Leaders. Very recently, it has been declared that Shri S. K. Dey, the Central Minister for Community Development has conceived a scheme for implementation in the second five-year plan to train fourteen million village leaders in 'Shivirs.'

The Shivirs are organised for a stipulated period of time. The aim and object of the Shivir, in general, is to explain the ideology, impart the knowledge, demonstrate the methods, teach the processes and train the shivir-inmates to encounter all the odds, coming in the way of spreading the ideology and implementing the programme.

In all schemes of human advancement the most important element of success is the man. It is, impossible, to take too much care to select right persons for right jobs. In a vast country like India, with a teaming population of crores and crores, bred and brought up in the cultural atmosphere as described in the RAMAYAN and MAHABHARAT, it is, not at all difficult to find proper men for proper positions, if only, there is the sincere urge to do so in the powers concerned. The mechanical way of advertising for certain intellectual qualifications, alone, is not sufficient for the purpose. Ability, integrity and devotion to duty are the essential qualities required in all kinds of services, especially those carrying great responsibilities. Such persons are not, too, rare to be found provided an open mind and an impartial view are kept in the fore-front.

These considerations, ought to be taken into account in selecting village leaders for 'Shivir' work, five from every village, instead of, as at present, selecting at random to complete the figure anyhow, which many a times, leads to mutual jealousies and rivalries, thus defeating the very object of the 'Shivir.'

The Shivir inmates are engaged for twenty-four hours, for the stipulated Shivir period. The programme starts early morning at 5 A.M. till 10 P.M. late in the night. It consists of the following items, in succession, namely, Personal hygiene, Prayer, Breakfast, Lecture, Meal Rest, Practical spinning, Discussion, Sports and games, Free time, Second meal, Evening prayer and Cultural programme.

The Shivir is conducted by the Social Education Organiser, who is the central figure of the Shivir and on whom, the success or otherwise, entirely depends, as the whole programme revolves round him. The Shivir Sanchalak who is only a causal visitor for a day or two gives him guidance on items, too numerous to do justice too. Moreover, he is ignorant of local conditions which vary from village to village. Thus his guidance serves no useful purpose. But the power and position which he holds unfairly and wrongly, entitle him to the credit of success which is in fact due to the hard work of the Social Education Organiser, who is unnecessarily discredited in case of failure of the programme for want of effective guidance on the one hand and sufficient means from the Block Development Officer on the other.

The Director of Village Leaders Training is no doubt, a most highly learned person, well qualified in his job, but far removed in cultural height from the villager, whose difficulties and problems he is unable to grasp. And on top of all his visits are too scarce and too short to be of any practical use as the experience of the past has shown.

The most noticeable defect in the present Administrative machinery of the 'Shivirs' is that the Shivir Sanchalak is loaded with too great

a responsibility, since he is to look after an area which is too unwieldy. Hence, he is, in the very nature of things unable to do justice to his job. The consequence is, the object of the Shivir is defeated to a large extent.

Another defect, in the case of 'Shivirs' is that there is no amount in the budget earmarked for the purpose. The result is that the 'Shivirs' cannot receive proper and proportionate attention which they deserve, as a large portion of the budgeted amount is absolved by the other activities of Social Education.

The next defect, so far as 'Shivirs' are concerned is that the Social Education Organiser on whom the responsibility of successfully conducting the 'Shivirs' is thrown is entirely left at the mercy of the Block Development Officer, who generally comes from a class which is proverbially known to dominate over the masses.

Further defect is that the 'Shivirs' which are generally conducted continuously for a week engaging the villagers for all the twenty four hours of the day loose all their point by keeping the peasants away from their work of production, which is a great national loss that cannot be ignored.

Moreover, their interest in the Shivir programme appears for a day or two as their personal interests are affected thereby. The attraction of 'Shivir' lies for those persons only who get a better food there, which is scarcely available to them during the whole year.

Other defect, the Shivirs are subject to, is that the experts who are invited to lecture at these Shivirs on their respective subjects are unable to use a language which is intelligible to the villager. Thus the lectures go off over their heads, without leaving any impression. Further, speaking is an art, which is not found in every expert, who may otherwise be the most competent in his line. This point is generally left out of account while making the selection of the experts.

It is, again, hardly realised that the period of a week or so during which the 'Shivir' is conducted is found to be too short for the number of subjects dealt with for the purpose. The ultimate aim and object can best be served by arranging regular classes to be effective would require for a couple of hours daily at their leisure for three weeks at least.

Then again, the pity is that the officers concerned concentrate all their attention to anyhow achieve the completion of the targets fixed, in order to please their superiors, rather than on the quality of the work, hence no useful purpose is served by the Shivirs.

Apart from all this, the most important point is altogether lost sight of, namely, the psychological set up of the villager, which has been built up over centuries. This set up is further strengthened by the Village Level Worker who often seeks to compel them to do certain things under threats of displeasure of superior officers. They have all along been taught to depend upon Government for every little thing, while it is now sought to impress upon them that their salvation lies in their own hands and Government of which they are the masters themselves, can only offer them aid as they may require from time to time. As matters stand today, it will take long time for the villagers to realise this new change.

In order, therefore, to promote the progress of the villages it is necessary that the work of the Shivir Sanchalak should be confined to three blocks only. The Social Education Organisers of the three blocks are expected to acquaint him with the local needs of the villages. He should equip himself with the guidance of the different experts in their different lines who should not be below the rank of the officer of the district level. He should be a man naturally endowed with the power of eloquence, which is essential for rousing interest and enthusiasm among the villagers, so necessary for the successful development of the villages. He should be selected from the Social Education Organisers of the Development Blocks as far as possible.

The classes, which the Shivir Sanchalak is expected to conduct should be of the duration of two to three hours daily ruunning for not less than three weeks at least. In which case the work done will be of a permanent nature. He should also have a party of two persons equipped with some sort of entertainment and instructional cultural programme based on different aspects of village life. All the members participating in the Shivir, will of course, have to be provided with decent drink and sumptuous meals in the evening.

I hope, and trust, if drawbacks which I have been able to notice while working are removed the 'SHIVIRS' will be a potent factor in the all-round progress of the area covered by them.

A SOCIOECONOMIC STUDY OF A TYPICAL ORIYA VILLAGE

By: Prof. Krishna Chandra Jena

OLLAMBA is a small village in the district of Ganjam in the Orissa state. It has been founded there 150 years back by a band of adventureous people. The site offered them plenty of water and enough scope for cultivation. In course of a few decades the half jungly area stood up as a mighty symbol of life and undefeated spirit of man.

From sociological and economic stand point the village offers a number of interesting features. The first settlers in the village had taken hunting and collecting fruits as their main occupation. There was little possibility for anything else. The area is noted for jungle products. and is densely forested. The original settlers had to preserve themselves as well as their future generations from the scourage of animals and the untamed nature. It is no wonder that these people could give rise to a set of people who are now able to adjust to a variety of positions and problems. To-day, this village has to be studied in a critical vision. The future prosperity of this village represents that of most of the villages in Orissa.

The village has a total acreage of hundred acres of land. Of this at least fifty percent is unfertile and lie waste every alternative year. Even the other fifty percent of land cannot be considered as fertile in the modern context. It yields only a single crop a year and the cost of production is high. There is no forest near by, all that stood one day has been deforested. Leave alone the chance of putting manure, there is no nursing of the land of whatever kind. The problem of land distribution and ownership has been a constant worry for the landlord as well as the tenant.

A very small stream runs near the village which cannot suffice to the present demand. In the course of hundred and fifty years, the village population has increased many-fold, but the small stream of water has been steady and very unresponsive to the highly increasing demand of the villagers. They mainly depend on the two water tanks. Out of these two tanks one is left for the use of the cattle and the other one meant for men is one mile away from the village.

When asked about the most acute and urgent problem of the village, without exception everybody referred to water. It is important to note that even today there are villages without sufficient water to drink.

The people of this particular village seemed to be sceptical about the forthcoming possibility

of a more beautiful or strong India. One of the villagers declared that such promises of a happy and prosperous country does make no change in their life and it will be futile to expect much from such 'propaganda.' A village that depend on the gamble of the Monsoon and does not know how much drinking water will be available for the current year is unprepared to believe in the high philosophy of the planners and the idea of socialistic pattern of society.

For good or for bad the modern methods of information have not been of much use to them. For example, there is none in the village who can read a news-paper and inform the villagers about the current topics. Only one person has come up to the college standard and he thinks it better not to return to the village. Such attitude of the educated people to disown their own village is a normal reflection of the sickly attitude of the college educated people towards the slumbering villages. No wonder that this particular village boasts of this college boy. Besides, there are half a dozen of other youngsters who come to the nearest high school at Dharakote. The high school is at a distance of four miles which is very difficult to cover every day. The poor standard of living combined with insufficient nutrition has made the students mentally very weak and it is not difficult to observe that most of them fumble in their student career.

The story of education is not complete without further reference. There is a primary school in the village with one teacher and three classes to be handled. There are nearly fifty students in the school whose age ranges from two to ten. The teacher in this school is not only one who teaches but he is their guardian and acts as their nurse. In such a miserable atmosphere it is obvious to imagine the task of the teacher.

But, the villagers do not take much interest in the schooling of the children. One of them said to me that there is no use of sending the children to the school, for the child can go and gather cow-dung or go and fish in the ponds. It is sure that it will take a number of years to come to a position of life when the people shall begin to think that gathering cow-dung is no better than education in the school. It is needless to mention that not a single girl has entered into the educational life. The villagers still feel that education corrupts the women and the women has no need to be educated. Without the fundamental information of a healthy life the women of the village live in lethargy, superstition and fatalism.

The government of Orissa has done some work for the economic and social development of the villages. As a part of the development of the rural economy the small-scale irrigation programme has been extended to this village as well. In a place five miles off the village there is a proposal to construct a dam at Sikharsinghi. If this proposal materialises then this village Ollamba will be immensely benefitted.

The Government has offered to a number of people long-term loans to utilise them in the improvement of the land. Such loans are also offered to the people in business. The area as noted earlier, is favourable for business in forest-products. But lack of sufficient capital and initiative had been the greatest handicap. Given proper help the people of this village can take up the local business which is managed by the outsiders. The village consists of at least 20 percent of people who migrate to Calcutta in the off season for the sake of employment.

The problem of unemployment has been corroding slowly but deeply into the core of their life. The dangerous life in the coal mine of Talcher, the unhealthy life in Calcutta or Tatanagar had been the most influencing factor in the life of the village. Accumulating sense of frustration and apathy towards healthier life has been breeding slowly and silently a class of people who have no high sense of dignity and self respect. Lack of education may make them uncultured but lack of the basic needs of life has turned them into beings without the

sense of reflex and hunger for any spiritual or intellectual value. The growth of such a disease must be checked. If it is left to itself then in no time we shall be deprived of the high hopes that were the dream of all our dreamers of India.

It is high time that all those concerned should take careful note of the miserable and degrading plight of this village of Ollomba. The story of this village is the story of many.

MARKETING OF ORANGE AT NAGPUR MARKET*

By: Dr. J. S. Garg & M. P. Azad

INDIA occupies fourth position in respect of yield of orange per acre while U.S.A., Brazil and Palestine stands first, second and third. In our country, Nagpur is the biggest orange market, from where 80% of the total production of the region is exported.

Nagpur is in the Vidharbha region which is known for the largest production and best quality oranges in India. During the year 1957-58, the area under orange gardens in this region was 30355 acres, out of which Nagpur, Bhandara, Wardha, and Amaroti districts nearly accounted for 85.5%. The annual production of orange according to Governmnt of India's Report in the country during the year 1951-52 was estimated to be at 9985969 mds., out of which Vidarbha region produced 2688000 mds., that is 26.9% of the total production of the country. The orange market of Nagpur is situated at a distance of a few yards from the Nagpur Railway Station. It is about two acres in area with a big hall in the centre. The Railway lines join it from both North and South.

Grading and Standardization

The grades specified by Government of M.P. on the basis of the size of fruit, irrespective of their quality are as follows:

Grade	Minimum Dia. in inches
Special	3.5
I	3.0
II	2.75
III	2.50
IV	2.25

There is no gradation of fruit at growers level. However wholesale purchaser gets the fruits graded before they exported through the experienced coolies in the following grades popular in the market.

1. Damaged.
2. Under-sized oranges known as *Thulli*.
3. Medium-sized *Battidar*.

* The investigation was conducted by Shri S. K. Fadnavis, M.Sc. (Ag.) Agri. Economics under the supervision of the authors during the year 1958-59 for the partial fulfillment of M.Sc. (Ag.) Agri. Economics Degree of Agra University.

4. Large-sized *Battidar*.
5. Medium-sized *Pola*.
6. Large-sized *Pola*.

The Agriculture Department of M.P. Government has however recognised the following grades based on size of fruit for Pola and Battidar quality.

Grade	Specialization in inches: Pola (Ambia Bahar)	Specialization in inches: Battidar (Mirig Bahar)
Extra Special	3.25	3.00
Special	3.00	2.75
Good	2.75	2.50
A	2.50	2.25
B	2.25	2.00

Prices

The peak period of arrivals of oranges of *Ambia Bahar* begins from the month of November and that of *Mirig Bahar* from March.

The monthly arrivals of oranges at Nagpur Market are given below:—

The above data shows that the wholesale average price of oranges is the lowest being Rs. 75 to Rs. 77 per cart having a load of about 10 mds. or 3000 fruits during November and December, when the arrivals are the heaviest being 10161 to 11848 carts per month. The price is governed by the Law of Demand and Supply. Subsquently the price rises as the supply is reduced and it goes as high as Rs. 190.0 per cart in the month of May. The arrivals in this months are 998.00 carts only.

The fruit are collected directly from the gardens either the cultivators themselves or by their Associations. Collection are also done by contractors and wholesale dealers. 70% of the total quantity arrived in the market is collected through contractors and wholesale dealers. It is only thirty percent which is collected by the cultivators and their Associations.

Marketing Charges

Nagpur is a Regulated Market and comes under Nagpur Corporation's bye-laws for marketing charges.

Months	Carts	Average price per cart in Rs.	Remarks
1. September	2021.0	90.0	One cart represents about
2. October	7470.0	92.5	3000 fruits, and 300 fruits
3. November	11843.0	77.0	equal to one md.
4. December	10161.0	75.0	
5. January	5337.0	112.5	
6. February	4995.0	142.5	
7. March	7912.0	165.0	
8. April	7089.0	185.0	
9. May	998.0	190.0	

The following are the marketing charges per cart:—

1. Octroi Duty:—	Rs. 1|0|-	per cart containing 10 mds of 3000 fruits.
2. Brokerage:—	Rs. 1|4|-	per cart out of which 50% is paid by the seller & 50% by the buyer.
3. Dharmadha (unauthorised)	Rs. 0|4|-	per cart. This is decided by the Arhatiya as convention.
4. Sample:—	Rs. 1|0|-	for 24 good fruits.
5. Miscellaneous charges:—	Rs. 0|8|-	per cart.
Total	Rs. 4|0|-	per cart.

Producers Share in Consumer's Price at Kanpur for a Load of 30 mds.

(The commodity was produced at Nagpur and consumed at Kanpur.)

Item	Rs.	Percentage
1. Price received by the producer	240.50	28.5
2. Expenses incurred by the contractor in bringing the produce from Orchard to Nagpur market:— (a) Cartage Rs. 34.25; (b) Marketing charges Rs. 12.00	46.25	5.6
3. Price received by the contractor or purchaser cost price	450.00	53.4
4. Profit earned by the contractor	163.25	19.3
5. Expenses incurred by the wholesale purchaser of Nagpur in despatching the oranges to Kanpur:— (a) Packing including containers Rs. 87.50; (b) Station Expenses Rs. 4.38; (c) Railway freight from Nagpur to Kanpur Rs. 15.00	91.88	10.9
6. Commission charged by the agent at Kanpur	48.00	5.6
7. Wholesale cost price at Kanpur	651.38	77.3
8. Price received by the wholesale dealer or retailer cost price	752.00	89.0
9. Profit of wholeseller of Nagpur	100.62	11.9
10. Profit of the retailers at Kanpur	91.75	10.8
11. Price paid by the consumers	843.75	100.0

Conclusion

The producers share in the consumer's price comes to 28.5% only. A load of 30 mds. fruit produced at Nagpur received Rs. 240.50 by the producers, for which consumers at Kanpur paid Rs. 843.75. The middle men (a contractor and a wholesale dealer at Nagpur) earned a net profit of Rs. 163.25 and Rs. 100.62 respectively which, accounted 19.3% and 11.9% of the price paid by the consumers at Kanpur. The retailers at Kanpur earned a net profit of Rs. 91.75 that is 10.8% of the consumers price. About 30% of the consumers price is the marketing and transport charges. It means that a dozen oranges at Kanpur at the peak period costing about 75 nP. must have been purchased for about 20 nP. at Nagpur Orchard from the producers. The middle men charges are very high which require modification in the marketing practices of this fruit, if it is desired that the producers as well as consumers may have a fair price.

RURAL RETROSPECT

By: Tarlok Singh Sandhu

WHAT is Rural? Rural refers to pastoral or agricultural population who derives its means of subsistance merely from the cultivation of land and raising of crops and stocks on it. Ruralites reside in villages, whose size is smaller than a town and bigger than a hamlet. Agricultral population in India is about 70% of the whole human heads; but rural population will be more than this limit as in villages many people do not depend directly on agriculture. The agricultural population in Punjab (1951) was 63.8% and that of rural 81%. The average number of persons in a village was 834 and the number of occupants per house was 6 on an average. These preliminary facts are common to almost all the areas of our union, having more or less similar problems.

Prior to independence the rural development was put in cold storage. Scatteredness and secludedness, due to imperfectly lopsidedly development of communicational facilities was a common feature of our rural economy. Foot-paths are still the common trade routes. Villages adjacent to natural high ways do not have approach roads. Transport media are still primitive which are slow moving and time consuming ones. All this limits the specialization and commercialization of production. Subsisence theme has to survive in rural areas for some time to come, and barter system in its crude state has to prevail in remote areas.

Rural population in India is illiterate and conservative. Old customs and beliefs govern their day to day performances. They are prejudiced and look the modern in rovations and inventions with jaundiced eyes. However, with the improvement in extension work they are being convinced to adopt changes in their mode of production as the modern art and technology suggest.

India as a whole is an under-developed country. The resources are under worked, hence the output is far below the potential,. The agricultural production per unit of area is perhaps the lowest in the world. The per capita income which determines the extent of purchasing power is far below in India (60) than its advanced counterpart-U.S. (1450) U. K. (770), and U.S.S.R. (310). It indicates that men in India do not enjoy the same comforts and conveniences of mankind as their brethern in the west.

Malnutrition is pronounced in underdeveloped areas. The daily per capita caloric in take in India is 1650 (1950) and in U.S., U.K., and U.S.S.R., is 3120, 3060 ann 3020 respectively (1954). The per capita consumption of animal protein in India is 0-9.9 grammes whereas in U.S. and Denmark is 50-59.9. Similar is the case with milk and its products consumption. This allows one to infer that India abodes semi-starved men and beasts. So long India remains a poor country. its men cannot accrue the benefits of modern technological advances in every activity. This is why, that the death rate in India is staggeringly high and the expectancy of life is at 27 only.

The meals in rural areas are simple. The breakfast comprises of bread (loaf) with curd (Dahi) or milk whey (Lassi). Comparatively rich rural class consumes curd and butter in abundance. Lunch consists of bread, vegetable, onion and achar (pickles). The dinner prodominently includes pulses. There is a wide disparity in the extent of milk and its products consumption among different sections and communities of the rural class structure.

Clothing is very cheap and scanty. An average Indian symbolises with a head and under-wear with a stick in hand. Bapu Gandhi was a true representative of rural India. Rural people come out in their colourful custumes on ceremonial occasions. The proudly way and the fashion in which such clothes are worn tell of our rural folk's urge and their ambitions, but curse of the poor is their poverty, the per capita consumption of woollen textiles is only 0-0.4 Kilograms per year in India compared to U.S-2.0-2.4.

Housing is deplorably inadequate. The very layout is unscientific and ventillation is improper. The same room is used for cooking the food, storing grains and household articles, sleeping and even accommodating the livestock. The houses are generally Kachcha and in rainy season houses are the source of housefly and mosquitoes breeding and infestation.

Similarly the social and economic benefits are restrictedly available to rural India. Though the use of medicines is rapidly increasing, still the rural people pray to god to banish the effect of any malady. The use of radio and films is fastly penetrating in every corner of rural India, but rural songs and folk dances are still principal media of recreation and relaxation.

Education was limitedly available to pre-partioned days. In villages the educated men can be counted on fingers, usually the Patwari or the teacher (Munshi) is the educated person. He assists in writing and reading out letters from and to the relatives. The folk songs refer that illiteracy is pronounced—such as Bhai Munshi Khat Likh Deh (O, Munshi: write the letter). The personal secrecy and privacy could not be preserved at either end.

In the presence of all these bottlenecks in the social and economic life of rural people, we witness that the evils like speculation, gambling, litigation, theft, drink, murder, arson, extravagance, etc. are quite noticeable. However, our rapid developing economy under the patronage of five year plans is remodelling our rural economy. Our first national plan was an agricultural plan, the second plan is though primarily an industrial plan, yet the total expenditure on agriculture is more than the first plan. The third plan again has accorded priority to agriculture. It means that rural life is noticing a turning point in its economic life.

In addition to expenditure on agriculture, the social services are getting quite adequate amount for the development of rural India. The villages are becoming model and ideal as each village after consolidation of holdings is getting land reserved separately for recreation centre, play grounds and parks for children, dispensary, Panchayat ghar, and school; the concrete streets

are being subsidized for improved sanitation. Manures are dumped in pits outside the village. The extension services are demonstrating the use of better seed, fertilizers, manures, insecticides as short term measures for better production. Heavy and permanent investment in agriculture is subsidized to some extent, and the cheap credit is made available to farmers to adopt improvements in agriculture. Farmers are becoming scientifically minded. Health and family planning services are changing the outlook of farmers to have fewer and better childen. Community receivers are disseminating the ideas of modern economic developments in our country. Evils are shrinking and prejudices are losing ground.

Inspite of these developments, some of the social and economic problems remain unsoluble, so long people are unable to pay the cost of such problems. The education which is considered as a generator of social and economic advancement will take some time to make available to all people even upto to primary level. The pupils who are supposed to represent better part of our class structure, represent a case far below the satisfactory standard. My personal observation in primary school of the Punjab state reveals very much interesting results.

The school was accommodated in a deserted mosque, staffed with two junior basic trained teachers who were nicely clad and very much formal and impressive in talk. The students or roll were 57 (June 59), out of which 26.3% were female students. The average age of the student was 9 years with average ages as high as 11 years for the final class and as low as 6 years for the first primary. Nearly 37% of the pupils never knew what is meant by age.

So far clothing is concerned it was satisfactory but 66% of students did not have foot wear, 45% of the students were without head-dress. 91% of the strength was having under wear. 28% of the students committed vulgarity. 22% of the total strength was suffering from lice infection.

About 60% of the boys consumed ½ sear of milk per day, while the remaining 40% did not consume milk, Nearly 77% of the students took tea in the morning ranging from a cup to tumbler. 16% of the students did not take breakfast, 39% took Roti (loaf) only, 45% took Paratha with Dahi. The younger students received relatively rich and concentrated food. 66% of the students did not receive pocket allowance. Out of the balance of 34.21% belonged to I and II class, which means the younger pupil are given allurement by their parents to attend school. The pocket money ranged from 3 nP. to 6 nP. only.

The condition of our schooling is such that there is no point to compare it with the advanced countries. Much of the spade work is to be done by our welfare state to raise the standard of rural India.